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Alignment and Word Order in Old Japanese

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1. Introduction

This paper discusses the syntactic alignment of the two major clause types in Old Japanese (OJ, 8th century): conclusive (1) and what we label ‘nominalized’ clauses, represented by the adnominal examples in (2).¹

Conclusive:

- (1) 見度婆 安麻乎等女登母 多麻藻可流美由
Mi-watas-eba amawotomye-domo tamamo karu miy-u. (MY 17/3890)
look-cross-when fisher maiden-Pl seaweed gather appear-Conc
‘When (I) surveyed the scene, the fishermaidens appeared to be gathering seaweed.’

Nominalized (adnominal):

- (2) a. 佐欲比壳能故何 比列布利斯夜麻 (MY 5/868)
Saywopimye no kwo **ga** pire puri-si yama
SayohimeGen child Agt scarf wave-Pst.Adn mountain
‘the mountain where Sayohime waved her cloth’
b. 和藝毛古我 蘇弓母志保保尔 奈伎志曾母波由 (MY 20/4357)
Wagimokwo **ga** swode mo sipopo ni naki-si so [o]mopayu.
my.wife Agt sleeves even drenched cry-Pst.Adn Foc long.for
‘I long for my wife, who cries so that even her sleeves were sopping.’
c. 久木生留 清河原尔
pisakwi Ø opu-ru kiywoki kapara ni (MY 6 /925)
catalpa grow-Adn clear riverbank on
‘on the banks of the clear river where catalpas grow’

We argue that while conclusive clauses display nominative-accusative alignment, nominalized clauses have active alignment. In active languages, also known as active-stative (Klimov 1974, 1977; Mithun 1991), the sole argument of an intransitive verb shows two distinct patterns: generally speaking, agentive intransitive subjects pattern with transitive subjects; non-agentive ones pattern with transitive objects. We see such a pattern in (2). In

(2a-b) the external argument, that is, the agent of the transitive (2a) and unergative (2b) verbs, is marked by the particle *ga*. In (2c), the patient subject of the unaccusative verb behaves like the object of the transitive verb in (2a): both are morphologically bare and occur immediately adjacent to the verb.

Other nominalized clause types include clauses inflected in the realis (*izenkei*) (3a), irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditionals (3b), and nominal clauses in *-(a)ku* (3c).

(3) a. **Realis (*izenkei*) conditional**

和賀己藝由氣婆

wa ga kogi yuke-e-ba

(MY 14/3993)

I Agt row go-Rls-when

‘when I went rowing.’

b. **Irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditional**

真幸而 伊毛我伊波伴伐

masakikute imo ga ipap-a-ba

(MY 15/3583)

safely wife Agt bless-Irs-if

‘if you bless me godspeed’

c. **V-*aku* Nominal form²**

乎登賣良我 伊米尔都具良久

wotome-ra ga ime ni tug-uraku

(MY 16/ 4011)

maiden-Pl Agt dream in recount-Noml

‘what the maidens recounted in my dream’

Each of the nominalized clause types in (3) share the active alignment properties of adnominal clauses in (2), beginning with marking of the external argument by *ga*.

Transitive nominalized clauses display another important property. As described in detail by Yanagida (2006), when the direct object is marked with accusative *wo*, it precedes the *ga*-marked external argument in nominalized clauses, as shown in (4):

(4) 花 橘 乎 嬾孀良我 珠貫麻泥尔

pana tatibana wo wotomye-ra ga tama nuku made ni (MY 19/4166)

orange blossom Obj maiden-s Agt bead thread-Adn until

‘until the maidens thread the orange blossoms on their beads’

We develop an analysis of OJ nominalized clauses that accounts for the co-occurrence of the active alignment properties in (2) and the [O *wo* S *ga* V] object marking pattern in 4.

Nominalized clauses assign inherent case, spelled out as *ga*, to the external argument in its base position in Spec, *v*P. Following a proposal due to Miyagawa (1989), nominalized verbal projections fail to assign accusative case. Two case licensing strategies are available for

direct objects: they may be assigned case, spelled out as *wo*, in the specifier of a functional projection above *vP*, as in (4); or, if they are non-branching, they may undergo incorporation into the verb (Yanagida 2005, 2007a, b). The second strategy is also available for patient subjects, as is *wo* marking in a limited context first pointed out by Vovin (1997) and described in section 5.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews previous analyses. Section 3 outlines the typological properties of active alignment, emphasizing that it has important differences from the better known ergative pattern. Section 4 shows that nominalized clauses in OJ share active alignment properties in two specific domains: case marking of subject arguments, prefixal crossreferencing of the subject argument on the verb. This section presents a formal analysis of active alignment in OJ. Section 5 focuses on object marking in nominalized clauses. In section 6 we discuss the diachronic sources of the OJ alignment pattern in a broader typological context. Section 7 concludes the paper.

2. Previous Analyses

2.1 Miyagawa (1989) and Miyagawa and Ekida (2003)

Miyagawa (1989) proposes that in OJ and Early Middle Japanese, adnominal and conclusive clauses have distinct case assigning mechanisms. The conclusive form of the verb is truly verbal and assigns abstract case to the object in underlying object position, while the adnominal form has nominal properties and has no case assigning ability. In adnominal clauses, the object is assigned overt structural case in the form of *wo* in order to avoid a violation of the Case Filter. Miyagawa's (1989) generalization is stated in (3).

(5) Miyagawa's (1989) generalization (1989: 206)

Accusative Case Assignment: The conclusive form assigns abstract case while the case assigning feature of the attributive (=adnominal) form must be manifested overtly as *wo*.

Given that overt object case marking is normally required in modern Japanese, Miyagawa (1989) and Miyagawa and Ekida (2003) propose that Japanese underwent a change from an abstract to a morphological case marking language, and that the driving force for this change is the increased use of the adnominal in main clauses. In OJ, nominalized forms including the adnominal are generally restricted to embedded environments (this is exclusively the case for irrealis conditionals and the *-aku* nominalized form); the matrix use of the adnominal is predominantly limited to the *kakarimusubi* focus construction (see Whitman 1997 and references there). The *kakarimusubi* construction, however, began to break down in EMJ (cf.

Hendriks 1998), with the result that adnominal inflection came to be used in main clauses without a *kakari* focus particle and eventually replaced the conclusive in main clauses. Miyagawa (1989) and Miyagawa and Ekida (2003), based on an extensive survey of EMJ literary texts, argue that the reanalysis of adnominal as a main clause predicate form led to the increased use of object marking with *wo*.

2.2 Kuroda (2007)

Kuroda (2007) proposes that the diachronic difference between modern and earlier Japanese is accounted for by an Agreement Parameter (cf. Kuroda 1988): agreement is forced in earlier Japanese, but not in the modern language. In a forced agreement language, movement is triggered by agreement inducing features, and optionality does not come into play. Kuroda proposes that earlier Japanese was a forced agreement language; he claims that *wh*/focus movement is obligatory, and both subject and object take obligatory abstract case marking. In modern Japanese, in contrast, *wh*-phrases do not move, relative clause heads need not raise, and abstract case marking is optional. We will show that the alignment characteristics of OJ are compatible with the view that certain, but not all types of movement are forced in OJ nominalized clauses. In particular, complements marked by *wo* obligatorily move out of VP. However this obligatory movement, together with *wh* movement in OJ, is associated with the active alignment domain of OJ syntax: nominalized clauses. The characteristic word order flexibility and other types of optionality are allowed in conclusive clauses, the accusative alignment domain.

2.3 Previous Non-Accusative Analyses of Old Japanese

2.3.1 Vovin (1997)

Vovin (1997) suggests that the suffix *-i*, analyzed as a subject case marker by traditional grammarians, represents in fact active case, marking subjects of transitive and of active intransitive verbs, but not subjects of non-active intransitive verbs.³ Vovin further argues that the case marker *wo* marks absolutive case, in that *wo* appears not only with the object of transitive verbs, but with the subject of stative predicates, in particular predicates suffixed with *-mi*, called by Vovin “quality stative verbs.” Based on the distribution of *-i* and *wo*, Vovin concludes that OJ is a language with active alignment. Although our analysis of OJ active alignment paper differs in many respects from his, Vovin deserves primacy of place as the originator of the hypothesis that OJ syntactic alignment is in important respects non-accusative.

2.3.2 Yanagida (2005, 2007a, b)

Yanagida (2005, 2007a, b) proposes that the historical change described by Miyagawa (1989) and Miyagawa and Ekida (2003) instantiates the cross-linguistically well-documented change from split ergative to accusative. Yanagida's basic claim is that Old Japanese is an ergative-active language with a split case system; the split occurs between main and embedded clauses, a type identified by Dixon (1994:101-4). Main predicates in the conclusive (*shûshikei*) form show accusative alignment. Predicates in the non-conclusive forms, i.e. irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditionals, continuative (*renyôkei*), adnominal (*rentaikei*), and realis (*izenkei*) show ergative-active alignment. Yanagida (2007a) proposes that the adnominal form was a vestigial antipassive, and *wo* was an oblique case marking the demoted object of the antipassive, but was reanalyzed as an accusative case, when the antipassive was lost in Old Japanese.⁴ A main objective of Yanagida (2007a) is to explain certain apparent counterexamples to Miyagawa's (1989) generalization (5). Yanagida (2007b) shows that in the *Man'yôshû*, there are 90 tokens of transitive clauses whose subject is marked by *no* or *ga* but whose object is morphologically unmarked. 55 occur with adnominal predicates, as in (2a), repeated as (6) below.

- (6) 佐欲比賣能故何 比列布利斯 夜麻
 Saywopimye no kwo ga pire puri-si yama (MY 5/868)
 Sayohime Gen child Act scarf wave-PAdn hill Gen
 'the name of the hill where Sayohime waved her scarf'

Examples like this are apparent counterexamples to Miyagawa's generalization. However, Yanagida shows that while bare objects do occur with adnominal predicates, there is a clear pattern to the counterexamples: the bare objects are almost without exception non-branching N⁰s. Based on these distributional facts, Yanagida proposes that bare objects in nominalized clauses like (6) are incorporated, on the model of languages like Chukchee (Spenser 1999). Chukchee has two types of derived intransitive constructions: a morphologically marked antipassive, and the object incorporation strategy. Yanagida argues that OJ used object incorporation in a similar way. Following the basic approach of Baker (1988), non-branching nouns immediately adjacent to an adnominal predicate are incorporated into the verb, and incorporation satisfies the case requirements of the incorporee. This preserves Miyagawa's generalization that the object of the adnominal predicate is not assigned abstract case in its base position.⁵ Note importantly that object incorporation is a salient feature of languages with active alignment as observed by Klimov (1977: 125-6; cf. also Sapir 1911).

In this paper, we retain Yanagida's (2007a, b) analysis of OJ as a language involving split alignment, and in particular her incorporation analysis of examples like (6). The incorporation analysis is discussed in section 4. However we do not retain the hypothesis that the adnominal suffix is a vestigial antipassive, for the following reasons.

First, the function of antipassive in ergative languages is to make the clause [-transitive], resulting in assignment of absolutive case to the external argument. But adnominal marking does not have this effect in OJ: the external argument in transitive adnominal clauses is marked with ergative (active) case (*ga*), not absolutive. Second, if adnominal marking in relative clauses was a kind of antipassive, we would expect it to be associated only with subject relatives. This is because of the so-called Absolutive Restriction on A-Bar extraction (Aldridge 2004), which allows only absolutive arguments to undergo relativization (recall that the transitive subject becomes absolutive in antipassives). But the OJ adnominal is used to form relatives of all types (cf (2a), an adjunct relative). Crucially, the adnominal is also used to derive object relatives:

- (7) 垂乳根之 母我養蚕
 [taratine no papa *ga* kap-u] kwo (MY 12/2991)
 Mk Gen mother Act breed-Adn silkworm
 'the silkworms bred by my mother'

This is unexpected if the adnominal was an antipassive morpheme.

The third problem with the antipassive hypothesis is morphological. Any arguments for analyzing the adnominal as a vestigial antipassive holds for the other nominalized clauses types as well, since they all occur with *ga*-marked agentive subjects and *wo*-marked objects in the order OSV. But each of these clause types involves a completely different affix: realis *-e/-ure-*, irrealis conditional *-a-*, nominal *-aku*. This means that there would be no specific morpheme marking the antipassive. The final problem is semantic. In ergative languages, the object argument in antipassives (if realized at all) is typically indefinite or non-referential (Dixon 1994: 148). But *wo*-marked objects in OJ are typically definite (Motohashi 1989). Again, this fact is unexpected if *wo* originated as the oblique case marker for objects in antipassives.

In fact, the expectation that an active language should have an antipassive is a product of the view that active is a subtype of ergative alignment. This view has been pervasive in the typological literature since at least Dixon (1979: 80-85), but it is by no means the only view. Other typologists, in particular, Klimov (1974, 1977: 29-43) have claimed that the two alignment types are distinct (see also Wichmann 2008 and the papers collected in Wichmann and Donohue 2008). We argue in the next section, on empirical and formal grounds, that the

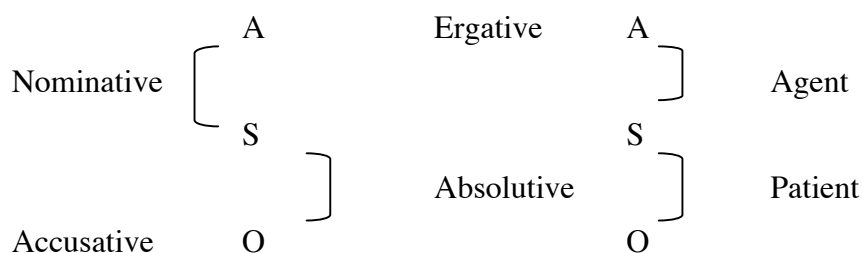
latter view is correct. In particular, the feature [\pm transitive], which plays a crucial role in the assignment of ergative case and in the derivation of the antipassive in ergative languages, does not play this role in active languages.

In the following section, we outline the typological and formal properties of active alignment, before going on to show how these properties apply to OJ.

3. Active Alignment

In Dixon's (1979) basic terminology, S refers to the subject of an intransitive verb, A to the subject of a transitive verb and O to the object of a transitive verb.

(8)



In nominative/accusative languages, A and S receive the same case marking (nominative), while O is distinct (accusative). In ergative/absolutive languages, S and O receive the same marking (absolutive), while A is distinct (ergative). In languages with active alignment, the morphological encoding of intransitive subjects depends on the semantic properties of predicates and their arguments.⁶ Certain intransitive subjects pattern with A, that is, with transitive subjects, while others pattern with objects. Dixon (1979: 80) distinguishes these as S_A and S_O .

3.1 Split Intransitivity

Active languages divide intransitive verbs into active and inactive. The exact lexical division differs crosslinguistically, but the two classes of intransitive verbs are distinguished by case marking: active intransitive subjects (S_A , typically the agent argument of unergatives) have the same marking as transitive subjects, whereas inactive intransitive subjects (S_O , typically the patient argument of unaccusatives) have the same marking as transitive objects. In Hindi, for example, verbs in perfective aspect show an active pattern: the case marker *-ne* appears on the subject of transitives and unergatives, but not on the subject of unaccusatives:

(9) Hindi (Mahajan 1990)

- a. Raam-ne kelaa khaayaa.
Ram-Erg banana ate

- b. Kutte (ne) bhONke.
dogs (Erg) barked
'The dogs barked.'
- c. Siitaa (*ne) aayii.
Sita (*Erg) arrived
'Sita arrived.'

Lotha (Tibeto-Burman) also shows active alignment (Dahlstrom 1983); the case marker *-na* marks S_A, *-co* S_O .

- (10) Lotha (Dahlstrom 1983)
- a. John-**na** firo ci echo cho.
John-Subj dog Det hit Perf
'John hit the dog.'
- b. Mpo-**na** oki na hapoi ci yi cho.
he-Subj house from outside Det go Perf
'He went outside (from the house).'
- c. Nkolo co a wopan ciag-**co** Wokka-e van cho.
long ago I family Det-Subj Wokka-Loc live Perf
'Long ago my family lived in Wokka.'

Active alignment can be manifested in the morphological case marked on nouns, as we have seen, but many active languages are strictly head marking: they mark agreement with NP arguments on the verb. Thus in Guraraní *a-* cross-references S_A ; *se-* cross-references S_O :

Guaraní (Mithun 1991)

- (11) A-xá. ‘I go.’ Se-rasí. ‘I am sick.’
A-puá. ‘I got up.’ Se-ropehií. ‘I am sleepy.’
A-gwerú aína. ‘I am bringing them now.’

3.2 The Nominal Hierarchy

We noted in section 2 that the typological literature has tended to classify active as a subtype of ergative alignment. One argument against this view is that active languages differ crucially from ergative languages with respect to how ergative splits interact with Silverstein's (1976) nominal hierarchy:

- (12) **The Nominal Hierarchy** (Silverstein 1976)
- pronouns > proper nouns > common nouns
- 1st > 2nd > 3rd person human > animate > inanimate

Dixon (1979) emphasizes that languages termed ergative invariably show splits, that is, nominative/accusative features in certain contexts. This interacts with the nominal hierarchy. Dixon (1979:86-87) interprets the hierarchy to “roughly indicate the overall ‘agency potential’ of any given NP,” and observes that “a number of languages have ‘split’ case marking exactly on this principle: an ‘ergative’ case is used with NPs from the right-hand end up to some point in the middle of the hierarchy and an ‘accusative’ case from that point on, over to the extreme left of the hierarchy.” This is exemplified by Thulung Rai (Tibeto-Burman), an ergative language. The suffix *-ka* marks A when it is lower on the hierarchy (Allen 1975, cited by Lahaussais 2003).

(13) Thulung Rai (Lahaussais 2003)

- a. Gui pe-pa .hal s.l-mu basi.
1pl eat-Npst.Prt dish wash-Nom.inf Obl
‘We must wash the dishes.’
- b. Gatsi mam-lai kr.m-.a l.-mu basi.
2d mother-Dat visit-Purp go-Nom.Inf Obl
‘You two must go visit mother.’
- c. Gumimim-**ka** kam be-mri.
3p-Erg work do-3p/3s.Pst
‘They do work.’
- d. I-lwak-**ka** i-mam-lai khl.i.
2Poss-y.sibling-Erg 2Poss-mother-Dat help.3s/3s
‘Your younger sibling helps your mother.’

In Thulung Rai, first and second person A appears with nominative case, while third person and common NP A follows an ergative pattern.

A split between pronouns and nouns is also typical of languages with active alignment, but crucially, the nominal hierarchy applies to the argument NPs in the opposite direction, as first suggested by Dahlstrom (1983). First and second person, which are at the top of the hierarchy, show active marking, while common NPs are less likely to be marked.

(14) Lakhota (Dahlstrom 1983)

- a. **Wa**-lowa. ‘I sing.’
1sg.Ag-sing
- b. **Ma**-haska. ‘I am tall.’
1sg.Pat-be tall
- c. **Ma**-ya-gnaya-pi. ‘You pl. tricked me.’
1sg.Pat-2Ag-trick-Pl

- (15) a. **Lowa-pi.** 'They sing.'
sing-Pl
- b. **Haska-pi.** 'They(anim.) are tall.'
be tall-Pl
- c. **Ma-gnaya-pi.** 'They tricked me.'
1sg.Pat-trick-Pl
- d. **Wicha-wa-gnaya.** 'I tricked them.'
anim.3Pl.Acc -1sgAG -trick

In Lakhota, the first and second person pronouns *wa* and *ma* display an active pattern, but third person plural *pi* has a nominative-accusative distribution. Independent NPs appear neither with morphological cases nor adpositions. As Mithun (1991) points out, case systems based on agency are frequently restricted to nominals referring to human beings.⁷ Thus Koasati shows agentive case marking on pronominal prefixes within verbs but accusative case marking on nouns. The active system in Batsbi (Tsova-Tush) is limited to first and second persons. Central Pomo has an active system in nominals referring to humans only. The Georgian active system is restricted to human beings. The Yuki system is restricted to animates. From these cross-linguistic observations, the implication follows that active marking is used with NPs from the left-hand side to the right-hand side of the nominal hierarchy; that is, if a language has agent marking in third person, it also has agent marking in first and second person. This is exactly the opposite of the right-to-left application of the hierarchy proposed by Dixon for ergative languages. The relationship between active marking and the nominal hierarchy is stated in (16):

(16) The Active Marking Hierarchy

In active languages, if active marking applies to an NP type α , it applies to every NP type to the left of α on the nominal hierarchy.

The preceding discussion shows that assignment of active case is dependent not just on the thematic role assigned by the verb, but on the place of S on the nominal hierarchy. Klimov (1974, 1979) emphasizes this point, stressing that in active languages both the semantics of the predicate and the subject NP govern the distribution of active case.

Dixon (1979: 80-83) divides active languages into two groups; “split S” languages such as Tupí-Guaraní and “fluid S” languages such as Batsbi. In split-S systems, the two classes of intransitive verbs have fixed membership and whether they belong to the active or inactive class is based on their prototypical meaning. In fluid S systems, verbs are divided depending on the meaning of each particular token. The active pattern appears when the S argument has

control over the activity and the inactive pattern appears when control is lacking. Consider Batsbi, a fluid S language cited by Comrie (1978:366).

(17) Batsbi: Northeast Caucasian

- a. Txo naizdrax qitra.
we-Abs. to-the ground fell
'We fell to the ground (unintentionally).'
- b. Atxo naizdrax qitra.
we-Erg to-the ground fell
'We fell to the ground (intentionally).'

In (17a) the activity is unintentional and the subject is marked absolutive, while in (18b) the activity involves intention, and the subject is marked ergative/active.

Summarizing, the distribution of active of S_A marking can vary along three dimensions: the prototypical meaning of the verb (whether it is agentive or non-agentive), the degree of control associated with the S argument, and the place of S on the nominal hierarchy. Legate (2008) provides a framework that can capture these properties and distinguish active from ergative systems. In Legate's framework, the external argument in ergative languages receives inherent ergative case in its underlying position in the specifier of [+transitive] vPs. (The analysis of ergative as inherent case assigned to the external argument *in situ* originates with Woolford (1997) and is shared by such researchers as Aldridge (2004)). In active languages, transitivity plays no role: inherent Active case is assigned to the external argument in Spec, vP regardless of whether or not *v* is [+transitive]. We propose that other features may also play a role in the assignment of inherent active case, including person features and semantic features such as [\pm animate]. This allows us to account for languages where NP type determines the distribution of active case.

4. Evidence for Active Alignment in Old Japanese

In this section, we present evidence for active alignment in Old Japanese nominalized clauses, focusing on subject case marking and verbal prefixation.

4.1 Agent Marking with *ga*

In modern Tokyo Japanese, *ga* is clearly a nominative case marker, because it marks both the external argument of transitives and the internal argument of intransitives, as in (18).

- (18) a. Taroo ga naita
Taroo Nom cried
'Taroo cried.'

- b. Hana ga saita
flower Nom bloomed
'Flowers bloomed.'
- c. Taroo ga hon o katta
Taroo Nom book Acc bought
'Taroo bought a book.'

The distribution of *ga* in OJ differs significantly from present-day Japanese. *Ga* in OJ is one of two genitive markers; the other is *no*, which retains this status in modern Japanese. In addition to marking possessors of NP inside DP, both *ga* and *no* also mark the subjects of nominalized clauses. *Ga* is restricted to personal nouns whose referent is someone close to the speaker such as *imo* 'sister, wife, lover', or a pronoun with a specific human referent. *No*, on the other hand, is used with nonspecific animate nouns, such as *pito* 'other people', and with inanimate nouns.⁸ The use of *ga* depends not only on the semantics of the DP it marks but also on the semantics of the predicate. In nominalized clauses, *ga* is used with active intransitives and transitives (19), while *no* is used with inactive intransitives (20).^{9, 10}

- (19) a. 比等豆麻古呂乎 伊吉爾和我須流
Pito-dumakoro wo iki ni waga suru. (MY 14/3539)
person wife Obj long for I.Act do-Adn
'I long for another person's wife.'
- b. 君我由久道
kimi ga yuk-u miti (MY 15/3724)
lord Act go-Adn road
'the road that my lord travels'
- c. 佐欲比賣能故何 比列布利斯 夜麻...
Saywopimye no kwo ga pire puri-si yama (MY 5/868)
Sayohime Gen child Act scarf wave-Pst.Adn mountain
'the mountain where Sayohime waved her scarf'
- (20) a. 淑人乃 良跡吉見而 好常言師 芳野
yoki pito no yosi to yoku mite yosi to ipisi Yosino (MY 1/27)
good people Gen good Comp well looking good Comp say-Pst.Adn Yoshino
'Yoshino, which good people took a good look at and called good, said was good'
- b. 花能 佐久都奇
pana no saku tukwi (MY 18/4066)
flower Gen bloom month
'the month when flowers are in bloom'

The first and second pronouns *wa* and *na* are weak pronominal counterparts of the strong pronouns *ware* and *nare* respectively. These weak pronouns have the properties of clitics: they are invariably marked with *ga* and appear strictly adjacent to the verb.¹¹ This contrasts with full NP subjects marked by *ga*, which allow an adverb or even a clause to freely appear between the subject and the verb, as shown in (21).

- (21) a. 乎登賣良我 伊米尔都具良久
wotomye-ra ga ime ni tugur-aku (MY 17/4011)
 maiden-Pl Act dream-in tell-Nomnl
 ‘The maidens told me in a dream.’
- b. 和藝毛故我 麻多牟等伊比之 等伎
wagimokwo ga mat-amu to ipi-si toki (MY 15/3701, 3713)
 my.wife Act wait-will Comp say-Pst.Adn time
 ‘when my wife said that she would wait’

Given the strict adjacency condition, we assume that the weak pronominals are clitics adjoined directly to the verb.

We see from the semantic differences between *ga* and *no* that *ga* marks NPs higher on the nominal hierarchy in (12), whereas *no* is used with NPs located lower on the hierarchy. This generalization applies both to *ga* and *no* as possessors of NP and markers of subjects (A and S) in nominalized clauses. Note that syncretism between genitive and agentive case is common in non-accusative languages. For clarity, we gloss *ga* as Act(ive) when it marks the S_A of a nominalized clause, Gen(itive) when it marks the possessor in DP. *No* is glossed Gen(itive) throughout.

Now consider the OJ examples below:

- (22) a. 君我由久 道乃奈我弓
Kimi ga yuk-u miti no nagate (MY 15/3724)
 Lord Act go-And road Gen length
 ‘the length of the road my lord travels’
- b. 明日香河 逝湍乎早見
Asuka-gapa Ø yuk-u se wo paya-mi (MY 11/2713)
 Asuka river go-Adn shallows Obj fast-Mi
 ‘since the shallows where the Asuka River flows are fast’

In (22a), the subject of the predicate *yuku* means ‘go.’ Its subject is human and volitional, and marked with *ga*. In (22b) *yuku* means ‘flow.’ Its inanimate subject *Asuka-gapa* ‘Asuka river’ is morphologically unmarked. The choice of subject marking depends on whether the event

denoted by the verb involves control or intention: only the human participant exercises control. Thus OJ nominal clauses are a fluid-S system, in Dixon's sense described in 3.1.

4.2 *Ga/no* Marking and Nominalized Clause Types

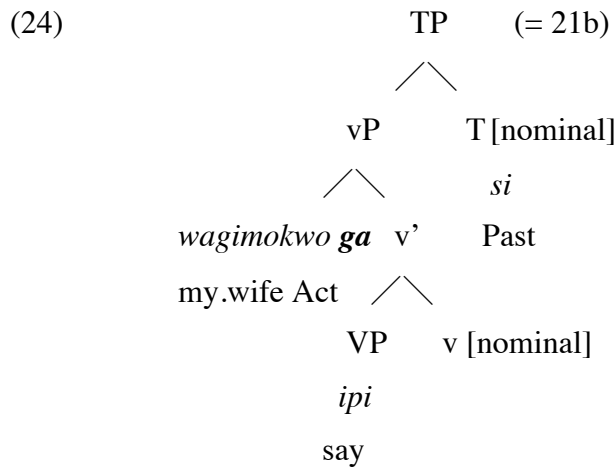
Subjects marked with *ga* and *no* appear in the clause types we have characterized as nominalized: adnominal (*rentaikei*), realis (*izenkei*), irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditionals, and *-aku* nominalizations, but they never appear with predicates in the conclusive form.¹² Let us look more closely at the evidence that these clause types have nominalized status synchronically at the OJ period. First, as described above, their subjects appear with the genitive case particles *ga* and *no*. The semantic distribution of *ga* and *no* in marking the possessor in DPs is parallel to their distribution in nominalized clauses: possessors lower on the nominal hierarchy appear with *no*, while NPs higher on the hierarchy, such as personal pronouns, appear with *ga*:

- (23) a. 橿乃京師乃 佐保川
 Nara *no* miyakwo *no* Sapo kawa (MY 1/79)
 Nara Gen capital Gen Saho river
 'the river Sahokawa in Nara.'
- b. 和可由都流 伊毛我多毛等
wakayu tur-u imo ga tamoto (MY 5/857)
 young.sweetfish angle-Adn girl Gen wrist
 'the arms of my girl who fishes for young sweetfish'

Second, the four clause types appear in positions typical of nominalized clauses: embedded complement and modifier positions and focus constructions, including questions. Whitman (1997) shows that it is common, particularly in East and Southeast Asia, for focus and interrogative patterns to be realized with nominalizing morphology on the predicate. Adnominal clauses appear as focus and interrogative questions, as the object of a postposition or as the subject of a clause. Realis clauses appear as questions, as focus constructions with the particle *koso*, and as presupposed conditionals typically followed by the particles *-ba* 'as/since' and *-do* 'even (though)'. Irrealis conditionals appear with the same two particles. Nominalized *-aku* clauses are analyzed as nominalizations by Wrona (2008) and typically occur in complement position. All of the environments above are embedded, all complements of a verb or particle or modifier of NP, except for the focus and question constructions associated with the adnominal and realis.

In this paper we adopt the view that nominalization involves a [nominal] feature associated with the lexical verb and percolated to T, the head of the extended verbal projection.¹³ The fact that the domain of nominalization in OJ is TP is shown by the ability of

the adnominal, realis, and irrealis conditional endings to select tense, negation, and modals such as presumptive *-mu*. In (2a-b), (20a), and (21), for instance, we see examples of the adnominal form of the past tense auxiliary, spelled out as *-si*. The ‘high’ locus of nominalization in OJ resembles languages like Turkish (Kornfilt 2003), where nominalization is at the clausal level.¹⁴ The concrete representation we propose for OJ nominalized clauses with *ga*-marked subjects is given in (24), corresponding to (21b).



[Nominal] *v* assigns inherent active case (spelled out as *ga*) to external arguments in its specifier. *Ga* thus appears on the subjects of transitives and unergatives, as described in 4.1. In addition, inherent *ga* is subject to additional featural restrictions typical of active languages as discussed in 3.2, such as the restriction that the active-marked DP be [animate]. In contrast, genitive *no* is a structural case, assigned by D in DPs such as (23a). We assume that D is also responsible for assigning *no* to the subjects of nominalized clauses such as those in (20), much as in modern Japanese (see Miyagawa (1993) for an analysis of D as the licenser of *no*-marked genitive subjects in modern Japanese). The mechanism of subject *no*-marking is discussed in greater detail in section 4.4.

In this section we have described a dependent marking pattern in OJ characteristic of active alignment: *ga* marking of A and S_A in nominalized clauses. In the next section we show that OJ also displayed head marking patterns characteristic of active alignment.

4.3 Active/Inactive Prefixes

A heretofore completely unnoticed piece of evidence for the active alignment of OJ comes from the verbal prefixes *i-* and *sa-*. Japanese traditional linguists have failed to identify a consistent semantic or syntactic function for these prefixes. But careful analysis shows that *i-* is attached to active verbs, and *sa-* to inactive verbs. These two prefixes appear almost exclusively in nominalized, as well as infinitive clauses.

4.3.1 *i-* on active verbs

The prefix *i-* is richly attested in the *Man'yôshû*, as in (25a-b).

- (25) a. 檜乃京師乃 佐保川尔 伊去至而
 Nara *no* miyakwo *no* Sapo kawa *ni* *i*-yuki itarite (MY 1/79)
 Nara Gen capital Gen Saho river –Loc *i*-go reaching
 ‘I reached the River Sahokawa in Nara.’
- b. 久米能若子我 伊觸家武 礪之草根
 Kume *no* wakugwo *ga* *i*-pure-kyem-*u* iswo *no* kusa *no* *ne* (MY 1/435)
 Kume Gen youth Act *i*-touch-PConj-Adn rock Gen grass Gen root
 ‘the root of the grass that the youth of Kume would have touched.’

A total of 74 occurrences of *i-* are found in the *Man'yôshû*. The distribution of *i-* parallels that of the case marker *ga*: both appear in nominalized clauses, i.e. irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditionals, and *-aku* nominal, adnominal (*rentaikei*), and realis (*izenkei*) clauses.

(26) Quantitative data for prefix *i*-¹⁵

Irrealis (Mizen)	Realis (Izen)	Adnominal (Rentai)	Infinitive (Renyô)	Conclusive (Shûshi)	Imperative (Meirei)	Total
3	5	19	44	(2)	(1)	74

The prefix *i-* attaches to active verbs (all tokens of *i-* in the *Man'yôshû* are cited in Yanagida 2007b). There are a number of cases in which *i-* is prefixed to the unergative verb *yuku* ‘go’, but no examples in which *i* is prefixed to the unaccusative verb *kuru* ‘come’. There are a few examples in which *i* is prefixed to what appear to be nonagentive verbs, such as (27).

- (27) 三輪乃 山... 奈良能山乃 山際
 Miwa *no* yama ... Nara *no* yama *no* yama *no* *ma* *ni*
 Miwa Gen mountain Nara Gen mountain Gen mountain among
 伊隠万代 道隈 伊積流万代尔 (MY 1/17)
i-kakur-*u* *made* miti *no* kuma *i*-tumor-*u* *made* *ni*
i-hide-Adn until road Gen bend *i*-amass-Adn until Loc
 ‘Mt. Miwa. . . until you hide yourself among the mountains of Nara, until you loom in the bends of the road’

Although we might expect (27) to be interpreted as inactive since the subject *Miwa-no yama* ‘Mt Miwa’ is superficially inanimate, the clause is interpreted as personificational by all Japanese commentators.¹⁶ The use of *i-* here thus fits with our characterization of OJ as a fluid-S language in the previous section: ostensibly nonagentive verbs may appear with active marking when they have human (or personified) subjects.

Unlike active marking *ga*, *i-* also appears in infinitive (*renyôkei*) clauses. But in infinitive clauses too, the prefixed verb is unfailingly active in all of the clearly interpretable examples. Of the 44 examples of *i-* prefixed to a verb in the infinitive, 18 involve the unergative verb *yuk-* ‘go’. The overwhelming majority of *i*+infinitive clauses have agentive empty (*pro*) subjects.¹⁷

In addition to being restricted to active verbs, we see from the table in (23) that *i-* occurs almost exclusively with the clause types we have identified as nominalized, or in infinitive clauses with agentive *pro* subjects. None of the 3 potential counterexamples to this generalization are written with phonograms. Kojima et al (1995.3: 369) interpret the single potential imperative example (MYS 3169) as not involving prefixal *i-*, but rather the honorific verb of displacement *imas-* ‘go/come (Honorific)’.¹⁸ In fact, both of the potential conclusive examples, MYS 1916 and 3885, are open to this same interpretation, as both involve honorific subjects and a verb with the meaning ‘go’ written in Chinese characters. If this interpretation is correct, there are no examples of *i-* occurring with imperative or conclusive predicates.

Summing up, the OJ verbal prefix *i-* is restricted to active verbs. It occurs only with nominalized predicates – the domain we have associated with ergative-active alignment – and infinitives with agentive *pro* subjects.

4.3.2. *sa-* on Inactive Verbs

The prefix *sa-* differs crucially from *i-* in that it appears only on inactive verbs, as in (28).

- (28) a. 左奈良敝流 多可波奈家牟等
sa-narap-yer-u *taka pa* *nak-ye-mu to* (MY 17/4011)
 sa-be.tamed-Perf-Adn falcon Top cry-Pst-Presum Comp
 ‘that the tamed falcons would have cried’
- b. 左宿之妻屋尔 朝庭出立悞
sa-ne-si *tumaya ni* *asita ni pa* *ide-tati* *sinopi* (MY 3/481)
 sa-sleep-Pst.Adn bedroom in morning in Top leaving remembering
 ‘remembering, leaving the bedroom where (I) slept’
- c. 狭丹頼相 吾大王
sa-niturap-u *wa ga opo* *kimi* (MY 3/420)
 sa-shine-Adn I Gen great lord
 ‘my great lord who shines’
- d. 梶野 尔 左乎騰流雉
sugwi no nwo ni *sa-wodor-u* *kigisi* (MY 19/4148)

cedar Gen field *in* sa-dance-Adn pheasant

‘the pheasant that dances in the cedar-covered field’

e. 河湍尔波 年魚子小狭走

kapa se *ni pa* ayu kwo ***sa***-basir-i (MY3/475)

river shallow in Top sweetfish fry sa-run-Inf

‘the young sweetfish running in the river shallows’

There are 30 tokens of the prefix *sa-* on verbs, including *neru* ‘sleep’, *niturapu* ‘shine’, *pasiru* ‘(fish) run’, *wodoru* ‘(birds) dance’, *wataru* ‘(toads) cross’, *nebapu* ‘spread roots’, *narabu* ‘(birds) line up’, *kumoru* ‘get cloudy’, *nituku* ‘get reddened’. All the verbs are intransitive, and all have non-agentive subjects (aside from *ne-* ‘sleep’, all are nonhuman).

(29) Quantitative data for prefix *sa-*

Realis (Izen)	-aku	Adnominal (Rentai)	Infinitive (Renyô)	Conclusive (Shûshi)	Imperative (Meirei)	Total
2	2	14	7	3	2	30

Like *i-*, the prefix *sa-* is used overwhelmingly (25/30 tokens) in nominalized clauses.¹⁹ *Sa-* also occurs in the *Man’yôshû* as a noun prefix, as in *sa-yo* ‘night’, while *i-* does not. This parallels exactly the distribution of agreement prefixes in active languages such as Sateré-Mawé (Meira 2006): inactive prefixes occur on nouns and inactive verbs, while active prefixes occur on active verbs only.^{20,21}

Alexander Vovin points out to us that one verb in OJ, *wataru* ‘cross’, appears with either *i-* or *sa-*. There are 4 examples of *i-watar-* in the *Man’yôshû* (MY 1742, 2081, 4101, and 4126), and 6 examples of *sa-watar-* (MY 800, 971, 1960, 1976, 2450, and 2804). The S of *i-watar-* is [+human] and volitional in all four examples: ‘the young woman,’ ‘Tanabata’ (Vega, the weaver star), ‘the fisherfolk,’ and ‘Vega and Altair.’ The S of *sa-watar-* is [-human] in all six examples: ‘(toads)’ (800, 971), ‘a cuckoo’ (1960, 1976), ‘the moon,’ ‘a teal’. Typical examples of each pattern are given in (30).²²

(30) a. 安麻能我波 波志和多世良波 曾能倍由母 伊和多良佐牟乎 (MY 18/4126)

ama no gawa pasi watasera-ba sono pe yu mo i-watar-as-am-u wo

sky Gen river bridge span-if that over from too *i*-cross-Hon-Prop-Adn Conj

‘though if one put a bridge across the Milky Way, (they=Vega and Altair) would *i*-cross over on that’

b. 雲間從 狭化月乃 於保々思ク 相見子等 (MY 15 /2450)

kumo ma ywori ***sa-wataru*** tukwi no *opoposiku* api misi kwo

cloud among from *sa*-cross moon-Gen faintly join saw child

I-watar- ‘cross (over the bridge)’ is agentive, volitional and telic, a stereotypical active verb. *Sa-watar-* is non-agentive and designates not a completed action, but the moon passing before the speaker’s view; in other words, a stereotypical inactive predicate.

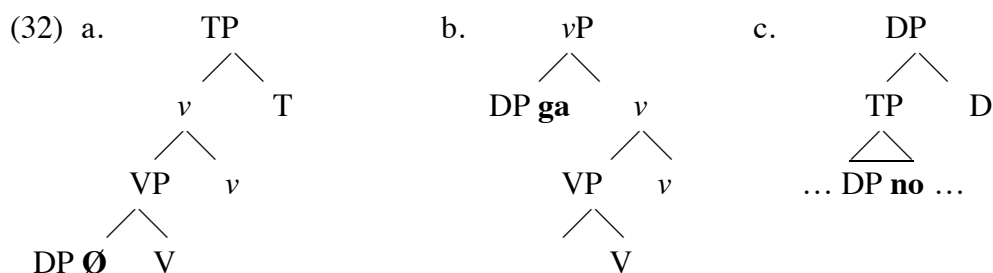
4.4. Marking of Inactive Subjects

(31) a. 久木生留 清河原尔
 pisakwi Ø opu-*ru* kiywoki kapara *ni* (MY 6 /925)
 catalpa grow-Adn clear riverbank on
 ‘on the banks of the clear river where catalpas grow’

b. 和何則能尔 宇米能波奈知流 比佐可多能 阿米欲里
 waga sono *ni* ume no pana Ø tir-*u* pisakata no ame ywori (MY 5/822)
 I Gen garden in plum Gen blossom fall-Adn Epithet Gen sky from
 ‘in my garden plum blossoms fall from the sky’

Recall that in 4.2 we described two genitive subject marking strategies in nominalized clauses: active *ga*-marking for agentive subjects high on the nominal hierarchy; and genitive

no-marking licensed by D, much as in adnominal clauses in modern Japanese (Harada 1971, Miyagawa 1993). A third option, exemplified by (31b), is available for bare subjects of unacusatives that remain in VP. Note that this third option cannot involve an ‘absolute’ case, because absolute should be available for both S_O (unaccusative subjects) and O (transitive objects), but as mentioned above and described in more detail in section 5, branching transitive objects do not appear in the VP internal position. Note also that the VP-internal bare subjects in (31) are nonspecific (catalpas, plum blossoms), while subjects marked with *no* may be either nonspecific as in (20b) (flowers), or specific, as in (30b) (the moon). These facts suggest that examples like (31) involve an impersonal construction, with the bare theme subject licensed in situ inside the VP. Impersonal constructions require a mechanism for assigning nominative case to the theme subject in situ. We propose that T in OJ nominalized clause may bear a case feature, but only in very restricted circumstances: when T selects ‘defective’ v, that is, v lacking a specifier and a case feature of its own (Chomsky 2001). On this view, the bare theme subject in (31b) is assigned case by T in situ.



Turning now to conclusive clauses, unmarked subjects occur freely both as the external argument of a transitive and the internal argument of an unaccusative, as shown in (33).

b. 見度婆 安麻乎等女登母 多麻藻可流美由

Miwatase-*ba amawotomye-domo* Ø *tama mo* Ø *karu miy-u.* (MY 17/3890)

Look cross-when fisher maiden-Pl pearl seaweed gather appear-Conc

‘When I look around, the fishermaidens appear to be gathering pearly seaweed.

While clitic pronouns are uniformly marked by *ga*, and restricted to nominalized clauses, as shown in section 3.3, strong pronouns in subject position are unmarked morphologically and never appear with *ga*.

(34) a. 吾草取有

ware Ø *kusa* Ø *tor-er-i* (MY 10/1943)

I weed take-Perf-Conc

‘I am picking weeds.’

b. 安米都知能 可未乎許比都々 安礼麻多武

Ametuti no kamwi wo kopitutu are Ø *mat-am-u.* (MY 15/3682)

heaven.earth Gen god Acc pray I wait-Presum-Conc

‘Praying to the gods of heaven and earth, I will wait.’

Bare objects as in (33b) in conclusive clauses can be analyzed as receiving structural accusative case from *v*, as proposed by Miyagawa (1989). Bare subjects as in (33a) can be analyzed as receiving nominative case from *T*, as in modern Japanese (Takezawa 1987). While the phonological exponence of nominative and accusative case differs, the syntactic mechanisms for case marking in OJ conclusive clauses are essentially the same as modern Japanese. However the sharp difference between the patterns in conclusive and nominalized clauses confirms that OJ was a language with split alignment: while conclusive clauses follow a nominative-accusative pattern, distinguishing *S/A* and *O*, nominalized clauses show an active pattern, distinguishing *S_A* and *S_O*, and grouping *S_A* with *A*. In the next section we turn to object marking in nominalized clauses.

5. Object Marking in Nominalized Clauses

This section discusses the two patterns of object marking in nominalized clauses. We focus on adnominal clauses, because of their higher frequency, but the same generalizations hold for the three other types of nominalized clauses.

5.1 Bare Objects

As we saw in 2.1, Miyagawa (1989) argues that in Early Middle and Old Japanese, adnominal predicates fail to assign accusative case, and hence an object must be licensed by morphological case in the form of *wo* in order to avoid a violation of the Case Filter. There are, however, a number of OJ examples in which an adnominal predicate takes an object

lacking a morphological case, which are thus apparent counterexamples to Miyagawa's (1989) generalization. Yanagida (2007b) shows that in the *Man'yôshû*, there are 90 tokens of transitive clauses whose subject is marked by *no* or *ga* and whose object is morphologically unmarked. 55 occur with attributive predicates, as in (35).

- (35)a. 佐欲比賣能故何 比列布利斯 夜麻能名
Saywopimye no kwo ga pire puri-si yama no na (MY 5/868)
 Sayohime Gen child Act scarf wave-Past.Adn hill Gen name
 'the name of the hill where Sayohime waved her scarf'
- b. 之加乃白水郎之 燒塩煙風
Sika-no ama no sipo yak-u keburu (MY 7/1246)
 Shika Gen fishermen Gen salt burn-Adn smoke
 'the smoky haze raising when fishermen of Shika burn salt'

However, while bare objects do occur with adnominal predicates, there is a clear pattern to the counterexamples. The bare objects are almost without exception non-branching N⁰s. Of the 55 examples of this type, only one has a phrasal object, MY 2639 in (36): ²⁶

- (36) 憑也君之 吾之名告兼
Tanome ya kimi ga waga na norikyem-u? (MY 11/2639)
 Trust Foc/Q lord Act my name state-PConj-Adn
 'Is it because (he) trusts in me, that my Lord has stated my name?'

In relative clauses, where the predicate is realized in the adnominal form, bare objects are systematically non-branching, as in (37) (see appendix 1 for possible exceptions).

- (37) 玉藻莉 海未通女等
[tamamo kar-u] amawotome-domo (MY 6/936)
 seaweed cut-Adn fisherwoman-Pl
 'the fisherwomen who are gathering seaweed'

Based on these distributional facts, we propose that bare objects in nominalized clauses like (35) are to be analyzed on analogy with incorporated objects in Chukchee (Spenser 1999):

- (38) Chukchee (Spenser 1999)
- a. Muri myt-ine-rety-rkyn **kimitʔ-e**.
 we-Abs we-AP-carry-Pres/II load-Instr
 'We are carrying the load.'
- b. Ytlyg-yn **qaa**-tym-gʔe.
 father-Abs deer-killed-3SG
 'The father killed a deer.'

Chukchee is a split ergative language that has two types of derived intransitive constructions with semantically transitive verbs (Spencer 1999). One is the antipassive in (38a), where O is marked with oblique case and A is absolutive; the second, restricted to N⁰ objects, is the object incorporation strategy in (38b). The incorporation strategy for objects is also widely attested in American languages displaying active alignment (Sapir 1911).

We propose that OJ uses the incorporation strategy for bare objects, like Chuckchee. Following the basic approach of Baker (1988), non-branching nouns immediately adjacent to an adnominal predicate are incorporated into the verb, and incorporation satisfies the case requirements of the incorporee. This preserves Miyagawa's generalization that the object of the adnominal predicate is not assigned abstract case in its base position.

5.2 *Wo*-marked Objects

Vovin (1997), developing the hypothesis that OJ is an active language, proposes that *wo* is an absolutive case marker, because it marks not only the objects of transitive verbs, but also the subjects of non-active intransitives, primarily adjectives. Most of these occur in a pattern involving the adjectival stem plus the suffix *-mi*:

- (39) 久左麻久良 多婢乎久流之美 故非乎礼婆
kusa makura tabi wo kurusi-mi kopi wor-eba (MY15/3674)
 grass pillow travel Obj painful-mi long.for be-when
 'as I am longing for (my wife) travel being painful'

There are also some examples in which a subject marked by *wo* occurs with inactive predicates followed by the complementizer *to* (40):

- (40) a. 世間乎 宇之等夜佐之等 於母倍杼母
yononaka wo u-si to yasa-si to omop-e-domo
 (MY 5/893)
 world Obj dreary-Conc Comp shameful-Conc Comp think-Rls-though
 'though I feel the world unpleasant and shameful'
- b. 和礼乎 伊都伎麻佐牟等 登比之古良
ware wo itu ki-mas-am-u to topi-si kwo-ra (MY20/4436)
 I Acc when come-Hon-Conc Comp ask-P.Adn child-Affec
 'that dear girl, who asked when I would come back'

Miyagawa and Ekida (2003) propose that examples like (40a-b) are instances of exceptional case marking (ECM), on the assumption that *wo* is the spellout of abstract case assigned by the matrix verb. Yanagida (2006) argues that OJ has no ECM construction, and that *wo*-marked subjects in the pattern with *to*-clauses as in (40a-b) are arguments of the higher

verb (which, as we observe, has a nominalized inflection, realis and adnominal respectively).²⁷ Under either analysis, *wo* is assigned not by the embedded intransitive predicate, but by the matrix transitive verb. Note that this leaves open the status of the NP *wo*. . .-*mi* pattern, to which we return at the end of this section.

The strongest argument against the analysis of *wo* as an absolutive marker is that the subject of a non-active intransitive verb is never marked by *wo* in adnominal, realis or irrealis conditionals, or –*aku* nominal clauses. It is either morphologically unmarked or marked by genitive *no*, as discussed in section 4 and exemplified by (41-42).

- (41) a. 多都多夜麻 美麻知可豆加婆
Tatuta yama mi-ma Ø tikaduk-a-ba (MY 5/877)
 Tatsuta mountain Hon-horse comes.near-Irr-if
 'If your horse draws near the Tatsuta mountain'
- b. 梅 花 咲散苑尔 吾将去
Ume no pana Ø saki tir-u sono ni ware yuk-amu. (MY 10/1900)
 Plum Gen blossom bloom fall-Adn garden to I go-will
 'I will go to the garden where plum blossoms bloom and fall.'
- (42) a. 此暮 柘之左枝乃 流来者
Kono yupupye tumo no sa-yeda no nagare k-o-ba (MY 3/386)
 this evening mulberry Gen branch Gen flow come-Irr-if
 'if this evening a mulberry branch comes flowing down'
- b. 宇能花能 佐久都奇
u no pana no sak-u tukwi (MY 18/4066)
 utsugi Gen blossom Gen bloom-Adn month
 'the month when the utsugi blossom is in bloom.'

If *wo* was an absolutive case marker, we would have no explanation for why the subject is never marked by *wo* in the contexts given in (41-42).

The particle *wo* differs significantly from its descendant *o* in modern Japanese in that it marks not only direct objects, but all kinds of VP-internal arguments including quasi-adjuncts (cf. Motohashi 1989). In (43a), *wo* marks the goal argument, and in (43b-e) source, locative, and time adjuncts. In (43f-g) *wo* co-occurs with a locative adjunct marked by *ni*, 'in/at'.

- (43) a. 象小河乎 行見為
Kisa no wogapa wo yuki-te mi-m-u tame (MY 3/332)
 Kisa Gen stream Obj go-ing see-Presum-Adn purpose
 'in order to go and see the Kisa stream.'

- b. 奈良乎伎波奈礼
Nara *wo k-i panar-e* (MY17/4008)
Nara Obj come-Inf leave-Inf
'coming away from Nara.'
- c. 川邊乎春雨 吾立沾等
kapabe *wo* parusame ni ware tati nuru to (MY 9/1696)
riverside Obj spring rain in I stand get.drenched Comp
'that I am standing getting drenched in the spring rain on the riverside.'
- d. 雨零夜乎 霍公鳥 鳴而 去成
Ame no puru ywo *wo* pototogisu naki-te yuk-u nari. (MY 9/1756)
Rain Gen fall night Obj cuckoo cry-ing go-Adn is
'Through the night when the rain falls, a cuckoo flies crying.'
- e. 秋風乃 寒朝開乎 佐農能岡 將超公
aki kaze no samuki asake *wo* Sanu no woka kwoyu-ram-u kimi (MY 3/361)
autumn wind Gen cold morning Obj Sanu Gen hill cross-Pr.Conj- Adn lord
'my lord, who would be crossing over the Sanu hill in the cold morning wind.'
- f. 安我許呂母 之多尔乎伎麻勢
Aga koromo sita *ni wo* ki-mas-e. (MY 15/3584)
my robe underneath Loc Obj wear-Hon-Imp
'Wear this robe of mine underneath.'
- g. 安治佐為能夜敝 佐久其等久 夜都与尔乎 伊麻世
Adisawi noyapye saku gotoku yatuyo *ni wo* imase. (MY 20/4448)
hydrangeas Gen eight bloom as eight generations Loc Obj live-Imp
'As hydrangeas have eightfold flowers, so may (my lord) live for eight generations.'

These facts make it difficult to analyze *wo* merely as the spellout of VP-internal structural case. In (43f-g), for example, it is unclear why structural case would be required for PPs headed by the locative postposition *ni*.

This property correlates with the generalization about the word order of OJ clauses containing *wo* mentioned in section 1. As shown by Yanagida (2006), the relative position of the subject and the *wo*-marked object is such that the latter always precedes the former, as shown in (4) and (19a).²⁸ Additional examples are given for adnominal (44a), *-aku* (44b), and realis (44c) clauses below. (See Appendix 2 for a preliminary correlation of conjugational forms with *wo*-marking in the *Man'yôshû*.)

- (44) a. 和礼乎也未尔也 伊毛我古非都追珠 安流良牟
Ware wo yami ni ya imo ga kwop-i-tutu aru ram-u? (MY 15/3669)
 I Obj dark in Q wife Act longing.for be PConj-Adn
 ‘Would my wife be longing for me in the dark?’
- b. 伎美乎 安我麻多奈久尔
kimi wo a ga mat-ana-ku ni (MY 17/3960)
 lord Obj I Act wait-not-Inf Loc
 ‘without me waiting for you’
- c. 草香乃山乎 暮晚尔 吾超来者
Kusaka no yama wo yupugure ni wa ga kwoye ku-re-ba (MY 8/1428)
 Kusaka Gen mountain Acc twilight in I Act cross come-Rls-Cond
 ‘when I cross over Kusaka mountain in the twilight’

Yanagida (2007a) lists 65 examples of XP *wo* preceding subjects. In contrast, the *Man’yôshû* contains only one example interpreted as involving the order Agent *ga* . . . XP *wo*.²⁹

In addition to this regularity about their word order, it has been observed by Motohashi (1989) that *wo*-marked phrases tend to be definite. In fact the generalization is slightly broader: *wo*-marked phrases are specific. This can be shown by the fact that *wh* pronouns can be marked by *wo*, but when they are, they receive a specific interpretation in contrast to bare *wh* pronouns. This is shown in the contrast between the following two examples.

- (45) 真木乃板戸乎 押開 思恵也出来根 後者何將為
Maki no itatwo wo osi piraki siweya ide ko-ne noti pa nani se-m-u? (MY 11/2519)
 wood Gen door Obj push open damn out come-Des after Top what do-Presum-Adn
 ‘Pushing open the door (I say) “Come out, dammit!” Then what will (I) do?’
- (46) 潮干去者 玉藻苕蔵 家妹之
sipo pwi-na-ba tamamo kari tum-ye ipye no imwo ga
 tide recede-Perf-if seaweed cut gather-Imp house Gen wife Act
 濱衣乞者 何矣示
pamaduto kop-aba nani wo simyesa-m-u? (MY 3/360)
 shore.gift want-if what Obj proffer-Presum-Adn
 ‘If the tide has gone out, cut and gather the precious seaweed! If my wife at home asks for gifts from the shore, which (other) shall I offer her?’

In (45), the universe of things the speaker might do is completely undefined in previous discourse. In (46), in contrast, the set of items that the speaker might offer his wife is defined as *pamadutwo* ‘gifts from the shore’. In this case *nani wo* ‘what/which Obj’ picks out specific items from that set.

Yanagida (2006) analyzes the properties of adnominal clauses as in (47):

(47) Case and argument realization in OJ

- (i) *Ga*-marked subjects stay in the base external argument position (Spec, *v*P).
- (ii) Bare objects are incorporated into the verb.
- (iii) *Wo*-marked objects obligatorily move to the outer Spec of *v*P, to check their [definite] feature.

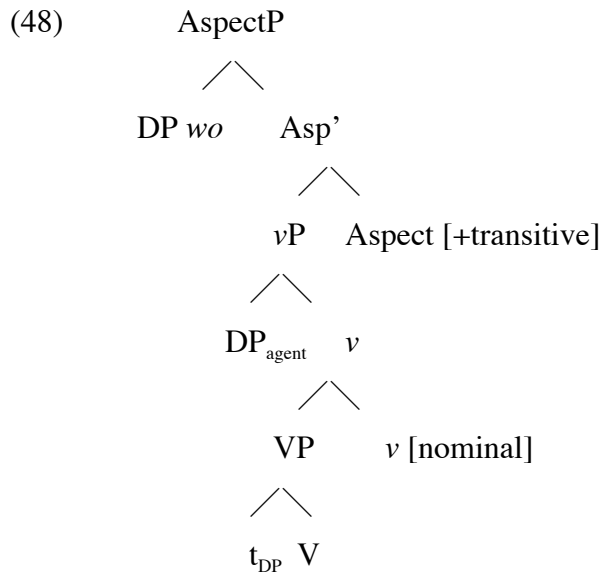
Here we revise this analysis to take into account the new data reviewed in this section. First, the properties in (47) apply to nominalized clauses generally. Second, movement of *wo*-marked phrases is not triggered by a definite feature, since *wo*-marked XPs may include *wh* phrases and PPs, among other items. Instead, we would like the specificity of *wo*-marked phrases to be a byproduct of their movement.

We can capture these generalizations by returning to the basic insight of Miyagawa (1989): that the verbal projection in nominalized clauses does not assign structural case. We saw in section 4 that under the active analysis the *ga*-marked agent in nominalized clauses remains in Spec, *v*P, and receives inherent case there. Following Miyagawa's original proposal, we hypothesize that [nominal] *v* does not bear an accusative case feature. This leaves two options for case licensing objects: incorporation, in the case of nonbranching objects, or case assignment by a head above *v*P.

As we have seen, *wo* is realized to the left of the external argument, indicating that it is indeed assigned by a head above *v*P. There are two possible candidates for the identity of this head. One is T; this would bring OJ into line with analyses of certain ergative languages where absolutive case is assigned by T (Aldridge 2004, Legate 2008). The drawback of this approach is that OJ *wo*, as discussed above, does not show the distribution of a standard absolutive case: it does not appear on the subjects of inactive (or any kind of intransitive) verb. A possible way around this difficulty is to expand the analysis of nominative case assigned by T in nominalized clauses presented in section 4.4. We proposed there that bare theme subjects are assigned nominative case by T selecting a defective *v*P in nominalized clauses. It could be hypothesized that nominative case is also assigned by T selecting nondefective, that is, transitive or unergative *v*P, but that nominative in this instance is spelled out as *wo*. An analysis along these lines seems possible, but it has the flavor of a stipulation, so we will not pursue it further here.

The second option is that *wo* is assigned by a functional head between *v* and T. We propose that *wo*-marked DPs reside in the specifier of AspectP. Washio (2004) shows that aspect selection in OJ was sensitive to transitivity, suggesting that AspectP, rather than *v*P, was the locus for a [\pm transitive] feature. We hypothesize that [+transitive] Aspect in OJ bears

an EPP feature that attracts the highest non-inherently case marked argument in the verbal projection to its specifier, as shown in (48).



Diesing's (1992) hypothesis that bare NPs extracted from the nuclear scope of the clause receive a specific interpretation explains the [specific] property of *wo*-marked phrases.

Note that this analysis correlates *wo*-marking and the position of *wo*-marked arguments with the presence of [+transitive] AspectP in nominalized clauses. We leave open the question of *wo*-marking in the other major clause types: conclusive, infinitive, and imperative. We show in Appendix 2 that *wo*-marking also occurs in these clauses, but as observed by Miyagawa (1989) and Miyagawa and Ekida (2003), it is more restricted. In conclusive clauses, it is largely restricted to propositional attitude verbs of thinking or saying, while in imperative clauses *wo*-marking seems to have been a mid-8th century innovation, probably triggered by the phonological merger of certain infinitive and imperative endings.

The AspectP analysis extends naturally to Vovin's characterization of the *wo*...*-mi* pattern in (39). AspectP is identified as the head of participial-type nominalization in analyses such as Embick (2004) and Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou (2007). Unlike the object Equi *wo*-marking pattern in (40), the *wo*-marked subject in *wo*...*-mi* clauses is not susceptible to a matrix object (or ECM) analysis, because *wo*...*-mi* clauses are adjuncts, typically expressing reason or cause. We analyze the *wo*...*-mi* pattern as adjunct AspPs, analogous to Acc-ing gerunds such as 'travel being painful' in English:

- (49) [AspP *tabi wo* [_{VP} *kurusi mi*]] *kofi wor-eba*
 travel Acc painful-mi long.for be-when
 'as I long for my wife, travel being painful'

On this analysis, *-mi* is the spellout of the head of [+transitive] AspP. The stipulation that *-mi* is [+transitive] may have a diachronic motivation, as one etymology for *-mi* derives it from

the infinitive of the transitive verb *mi*- ‘see’. *Wo...-mi* clauses do not contain tense, which is consistent with our hypothesis that *wo* is assigned by a functional head lower than T.

Summarizing the results of this section, we have shown that OJ had two mechanisms for case marking objects in nominalized clauses: incorporation and *wo*-marking above *vP*. The inability of *v* in nominalized clauses to assign accusative case is a direct extension of Miyagawa’s (1989) original hypothesis. More generally, as we discuss in detail in 6.2, the active alignment properties of OJ nominalized clauses fit into the crosslinguistic pattern identified by “nominalist” analyses of non-accusative alignment such as Johns (1992) and Kaufman (2008). [Nominal] *v* is unable to check the case feature of the object. Objects must therefore be case licensed by other strategies: assignment of ‘absolutive’ case by T (Aldridge 2004, Legate 2008), default absolutive (Legate 2008), incorporation, or, in the instance of OJ, case assignment by a functional head above *vP*.

6. Alignment and Nominalization in Diachronic and Typological Perspective

We have seen that OJ active alignment is restricted to the clause types we have called ‘nominalized’: adnominal (*rentaikei*), nominal complements in *-aku*, and realis (*izenkei*) and irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditionals. We have shown how the nominalized properties of these clauses are intimately linked with their active properties: nominalized clauses assign inherent agentive *ga* in Spec, *vP*, and [transitive] Aspect in these clauses attracts complements to a position above the external argument, where they receive *wo*-marking. In 6.1 we discuss the diachronic sources for the nominalized clause patterns in OJ. In 6.2 we show that nominalizations are widely attested crosslinguistic source for non-accusative alignment. We focus on a specific case, Cariban languages as analyzed by Gildea (1998, 2000), and point out that it suggests a possible source for the *wo*-marking pattern in OJ. 6.3 discusses changes possibly already underway in OJ, involving the genitive/subject marker *no*.

6.1 The Nominalizing Origins of the Adnominal and Irrealis Conditional Endings

Konoshima (1962) seems to have been the first to argue that the nominalizing or *juntaigen* ‘quasi-nominal’ function of the adnominal endings was primary, and its NP modifying function secondary. Adnominal clauses in OJ have the distribution of [+N] categories, i.e NPs and uninflected adjectives. Like NPs, they may serve as subject or object of the clause, and be followed by case markers. The NP modifying function of adnominal clauses is parallel to uninflected adjectives, which were able to directly modify NP in OJ.³⁰ As we saw in 2.1, Miyagawa (1989) also analyzes OJ and MJ adnominal clauses as [nominal].

Of the remaining three clause types that we have labeled nominalized, two are held to be diachronically derived from the adnominal. Nominal complements in *-aku* are derived by Ohno (1953) from the adnominal form of the verb plus a noun **aku*, e.g. *yuk-u* ‘go-Adn’ + *aku* > *yukaku* ‘going;’ *kuru* ‘come-Adn’ + *aku* > *kuraku* ‘coming.’³¹ Whitman (2004) derives the irrealis endings (*-e* for quadrigrade, *-ure* for other conjugations) from the proto-Japanese form of the adnominal ending **-or*.

The irrealis (*mizenkei*) base in OJ is shown by Ohno to be of heterogeneous origin. It results from reanalysis of the initial vowel in various auxiliaries and suffixes as the ending of the irrealis (*mizenkei*) base. In the case of the irrealis conditional, the ending was **-a*, probably related to the nominalizing suffix **-a* hypothesized by Sakakura (1966: 286-303). This ending is preserved in such noun-verb pairs as *tuk-* ‘build up’ : *tuka* ‘mound;’ *mur(e)-* ‘gather’ : *mura* ‘group, village.’ The irrealis conditional appears productively only before the conditional particle *-ba*, which Ohno derives from locative *ni* + topic marker *pa*. If Ohno’s analysis is correct, it confirms the original nominalizing function of **-a*, as we expect locative *ni* to select a [nominal] form.

Summing up, the four clause types that show active-ergative alignment in OJ all derive from nominalizations: the adnominal, nominal, and realis conditional from the pJ nominalizing suffix **-or*, and the irrealis conditional from a nominalizing suffix **-a*.

6.2 Nominalizations as Sources for Alignment

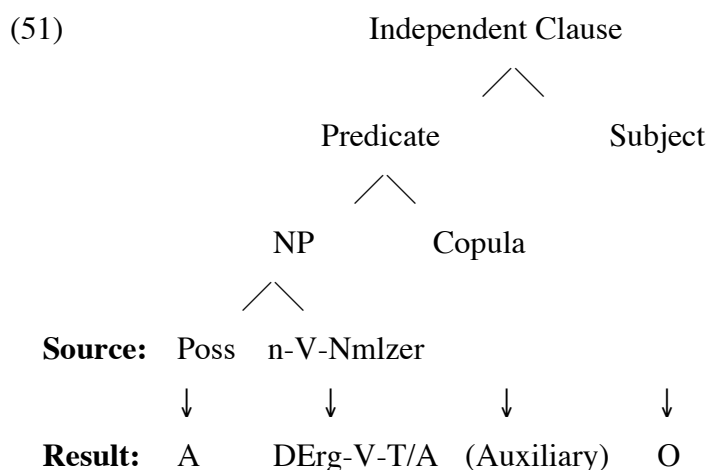
A number of linguists have proposed nominalization structures as the diachronic source for non-accusative alignment, particularly for languages that show syncretism of agent and genitive marking. Proposals of this sort are made for Mayan (Bricker 1981), Austronesian (Starosta et al 1982; Kaufman 2007), Cariban by Gildea (1998, 2000). Johns (1992) develops a synchronic account of Inuktitut ergativity based on nominalization.³² The starting point for these ‘nominalist’ accounts of non-accusative alignment is similar to Miyawgawa’s synchronic treatment of adnominal clauses in OJ: nominalized clauses are unable to assign structural accusative case. Depending on the features of T, or whether T is present, nominalized clauses may also be unable to assign structural nominative. The non-accusative alignment properties of nominalizations can be seen in familiar examples, such as English derived nominalizations. Thus in *the city’s destruction by the barbarians*, the nominal projection assigns neither accusative nor nominative case; the external argument is licensed by the preposition *by*, and the internal argument is assigned genitive case by D.

From a diachronic perspective, the nominalist hypothesis holds that non-accusative alignment results when nominalized clauses are reanalyzed as main clauses. Gildea (1998)

discusses a particularly rich range of alignment and word order patterns resulting from reanalyzed nominalizations in Cariban. We focus here on what Gildea (1998: 190-6, 2000: 85-88), citing Franchetto (1990), calls the ‘De-ergative’ system in the Cariban languages Panare and Kuikúro. The source for this system in earlier Cariban, according to Gildea, was an object nominalization selected by the matrix copula. In this source structure, the agent remained within the nominalized VP, while the notional object argument of the nominalized verb corresponded to the subject of the matrix copula. Let us first look at a modern Panare example of the de-ergative pattern (50).³³

- (50) *yu-noh p□ n□-a’kama-p□t□-hpë mën* (Gildea 2000: 86)
 1-grandmother dead Agt.Foc-tell-Iter-Pst it
 ‘My late grandmother told it over and over.’

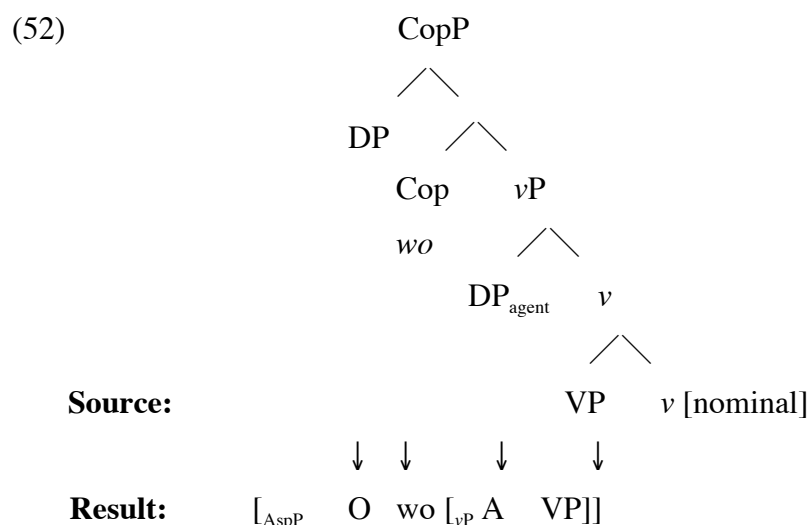
(51) shows the source structure that Gildea (2000: 88) posits for the de-ergative pattern:



The reconstructed source for a sentence like (50), for example, would involve an object nominalization with the meaning ‘what my grandmother told over and over again.’ ‘It’ is predicated of this nominalization by the matrix copula. The complete reconstructed source for (50) would thus have the form ‘It is [what my grandmother told over and over again].’ In Panare, this source structure is reanalyzed as monoclausal, as shown in (51): the copula is reanalyzed as an auxiliary, the nominalization as a verbal projection containing the verb and the external argument (A) in its base position, and the original subject as the object (O). Gildea (2000: 98) cites constituency tests showing that O in the Panare de-ergative construction is external to the minimal projection containing A and the verb.

Gildea’s account shows how reanalysis of a nominalization structure can result not just in non-accusative alignment, but in a crosslinguistically marked structure. The basic property of this structure is exactly the same as the property of *wo*-marked clauses in OJ identified by Yanagida (2006) and discussed in 5.2: the object surfaces outside the minimal projection containing the external argument and the verb.

Japanese is not a member of a clearly defined language family of great time depth like Cariban, so in reconstructing earlier Japanese syntax we are confined to the technique of internal reconstruction. However we would like to conclude this section by suggesting the possibility that a reanalysis similar to (51) was the diachronic source of the O-*wo* S-gen V pattern in OJ. The etymological source of the object marker *wo* has long been debated, but one fact that has not been observed is that the shape of this particle is identical to the existential verb root *wo-*, which appears in the OJ verbs *wor-* 'exist, sit' and *wi-* 'be at, sit'.¹³⁴ We suggest that that *wo* originates as the copular verb in a construction parallel to the Cariban de-ergative pattern.



In (52), as in (51), a source structure involving copula+nominalization is reanalyzed as monoclausal. The projection containing the original copula is reanalyzed as AspP, similar to the reanalysis of the copula as an auxiliary in Cariban. The rest of the structure remains the same. The most controversial aspect of (52) is likely to be the hypothesis that earlier Japanese may have had a right-branching copula. But even at the OJ stage, Japanese gives evidence for right-branching functional projections, such as the aspectual auxiliary *ari* 'be', the modal auxiliary *e* 'be able', and negative imperative *na*, all of which appear to the left of the lexical verb (Whitman 2005).

In this section we have presented typological evidence suggesting that both the alignment and transitive constituent structure properties of OJ nominalized clauses fit into a larger crosslinguistic pattern. Nominalized clauses may provide the diachronic source for non-accusative alignment, and for a synchronic pattern where the object appears outside the minimal projection containing the subject and the verb.

6.3 After OJ: the Reanalysis of *no* as Nominative

As we have seen, in OJ the subject can be marked by *ga* or *no*, but their distribution is quite different. *Ga* marks the external argument of transitive/unergative verbs, but not the internal argument of an unaccusative. *No*, on the other hand, patterns like a nominative case marker in that it can mark both the external argument of a transitive and the internal argument of intransitives, as we saw in section 4.1:

- (53) a. 弥騰里兒能 知許布我其登久
 midorigwo **no** ti kop-u ga gotoku (MY18/4122)
 infant Gen breast desire-Adn Agt like
 ‘like a child desires its mother’s milk’
- b. 真木乃立 荒山中尔
 makwi **no** tatu ara yama naka (MY 3/241)
 tree Gen stand rough mountain inside
 ‘in the rough mountains covered with trees’

In (53a), *no* marks the subject of the transitive and in (53b) it marks the subject of the unaccusative. The two particles *ga* and *no* behave differently at the syntactic level as well. Yanagida (2006) shows that when the subject and object are case-marked, the object always precedes the subject, as we saw in 4.2. But there are a few cases of *no*-marked subjects which violate this generalization. These are illustrated in (54) (other *Man’yôshû* examples are 196, 2772, 2831, 3689).

- (54) a. 春雨 乃 与久列杼 吾等乎沾
 parusame **no** yokure-do ware **wo** nuras-aku (MY 9/1697)
 spring rain Gen avoid-although I Obj drench-Adn
 ‘(that) the spring rain, however (I) try to avoid it, drenches me.’
- b. 彼所毛加 人之 吾乎事 将成
 Soko mo ka pito **no** wa **wo** koto nas-am-u? (MY 512, 1329, 1376)
 That too Q people Gen I-Obj things say-Conj-Adn
 ‘Do people say that of me too?’

In (54) *no* appears in a position preceding *wo*. Although this configuration is rare in the *Man’yôshû*, it becomes widespread in *kunten* glosses written early in EMJ. The following examples are taken from the *Konkômyô Saishô Ôkyô* ‘The Sutra of Golden Light’ (*kunten* text ca. 830; interpretations are based on Kasuga 1969).

- (55) a. yoki wotoko yoki womina **no** ... sinkyau no kokoro **wo** nasamu (K 3-5:46)
 good men good woman Gen/Nom reverent Gen mind Acc produce

‘(that) good men and good women... might produce a reverent mind’

- b. yoki wotoko yoki womina **no** ... Sanzyou dou **wo** syusemu (K 3-5:50)
good man good woman Gen/Nom Triyāna way Acc practice

‘(that) good men and good women might master the Triyāna doctrine’

Another significant development revealed in this early EMJ text is that subject marking *ga* is only used in the form of *aga* ‘I.Subj’ and *naga* ‘you.Subj’; nominal subjects are never marked by *ga*.³⁵ In the *Man’yōshū* the pronominal subjects *aga* and *naga* are strictly adjacent to the verb, but in the *Konkōmyō Saishō Ōkyō* they can occur in sentence initial position, preceding a *wo*-marked object, as shown in (56).

- (56) a. **wa ga** katari **wo** idas-are-mu toki... (K 8-15:144)

I Agt words Acc produce-Pass-Presum time

‘the time when I (was able to) produce words’

- b. **na ga** yoku kono Myaugyau-wau **wo** rufu-si... (K 8-15:146)

you Agt successfully this Myaugyau-wau Acc propagate

‘you propagating this *Myō-kyō* successfully...’

It appears, from this data, that *ga* as an active case marker, in the formal sense we have defined in this paper, was lost early in the EMJ period. The limitation of *ga* to first and second person pronouns was probably a step on the way in this process. (Recall that in many languages, active case is restricted to first and second personal pronouns.)

Finally, in section 4.3.1 we saw evidence for a pronominal active prefix *i-* in OJ. In the *Konkōmyō Saishō Ōkyō*, however, there are many instances of the postnominal particle *i* marking the agent arguments of transitive/unergative verbs, as shown in (57) below:

- (57) Ware **i** ... ti ga sakai **wo** tuutatus-eri. (K 8-19:155)

I Nom wisdom Ga border Acc pass-Rslt

‘I passed through the border of wisdom.’

As we saw in 2.3.1, Vovin (1997) analyzes the postnominal particle *i* in OJ as an active (agentive) marker. However considering the fact that early *kunten* texts were heavily influenced by Korean glossing for Chinese Buddhist texts, it is possible that subject marking *i* is a borrowing of the Korean nominative marker *i*. This would be consistent with the view of Vovin (2005) that the much rarer subject marker *i* found in OJ is a Korean loan. In any case, EMJ *i* patterns like *no*, rather than OJ *ga*, in that it appears in a position preceding *wo*.

The word order facts suggest that Japanese was well on the way to developing accusative alignment even in nominalized clauses by the early EMJ period. Transitive subjects, regardless of the phonetic form of their case marker, were assigned case in a position higher

than *wo*-marked objects. This case was spelled out as *ga* (on first and second person pronouns) *i* (on some agentive subjects) or *no* (the elsewhere case).

7. Conclusion

In this paper, we have proposed that Japanese at its oldest attested stage, central dialect OJ of the 8th century, shows evidence of active alignment. OJ displays a split in case marking between main (conclusive) and nominalized clauses. Main conclusive clauses are accusative. Nominalized clauses display active alignment in case marking and crossreferencing of arguments on the verb through prefixation. The distinctive O *wo* S V pattern of transitive nominalized clauses identified by Yanagda (2006) is consistent with a formal analysis of active alignment where the external argument receive inherent active case in situ. Crosslinguistic comparison shows that nominalization is a widespread source for non-accusative alignment, as well as for a pattern where the surface position of the object is higher than the subject.

Appendix 1: Bare Objects in Relative Clauses

The possible counterexamples to Miyagawa's generalization in (5) are given below. Phrasal objects can appear with adnominal relative clause predicates when they occur in main clause initial position, as shown in (58).

- (58) a. [Tomo-no Ura-no iso-no murwo-no kwi-Ø] [[pro mimu-goto-ni api-misi] imo]pa
 Tomo Bay Gen beach Gen cypress Gen tree see whenever see maid-TOP
 wasura-ye-me yamo (MY 3/447)
 forget-AUX Q
 'Whenever I see the cypress-tree by the beach beside Tomo Bay, would I ever
 forget my dear who stood by me and saw it?'
 b. [Kadusika no Mama no iriyeni utinabiku tamamo-Ø][[pro kari-kyemu]tekwona] si
 Kazushika Gen Mama Gen inlet in wave seaweed cut-AUX maid FOC
 omopo-yu (MY 3/433)
 remembee-AUX
 'I remember the maid who gathered the waving seaweed in the inlet of Mama of
 the Kazushika region.'

The phrasal objects in clause initial position in (58) are left dislocated to the left peripheral topic position. A left dislocated topic may serve as what is known as *jokotoba* 'introductory stanza', an important rhetorical device used throughout the *Man'yôshû*. The introductory

stanza prefaces the contents of the succeeding verse. Note that a bare oblique NP can also be left dislocated out of a relative clause with an intransitive predicate, as in (59).

- (59) [**Yupuyami-no konopa** Ø] [[pro komoreru] tukwi] matu gotosi. (MY 11/2666)

evening-dark Gen tree-leave hide moon wait like

‘I feel as if I were waiting for the moon hidden behind an evening tree.’

In OJ, not only the object of a transitive verb but the locative adjunct of an intransitive verb can be morphologically bare. The bare NP in (59) is not a counterexample to Miyagawa’s generalization on two counts: first, it is an adjunct, thus not assigned structural case; second, it occurs in main clause initial position and thus may be interpreted as left dislocated.

In other cases of bare NP adjuncts we know that the first explanation is at work. The two bare NP adjuncts *ama no sita* ‘the land’ (lit. ‘under the heavens’) and *tamapoko-no miti* ‘road’ can appear inside an adnominal clause: there are 4 occurrences of *ama-no-sita* and 6 of *tamapoko-no miti*, as illustrated in (60). (For other examples, see MY 162, 207, 230, 1738, 3276, 4006, 4098, 4465.)

- (60) a. [Opotu no miya ni **ama no sita** Ø sirasime-kyem-u] sumyeroki (MY 1/29)

Otsu Gen Palace to heaven Gen under governed emperor

‘the emperor who came to the Palace of Otsu to rule the land.’

- b. naku tori no kowe mo kikoye-zu [**tamapoko no miti** yuku] pito (MY 2/207)

sing bird Gen sound Foc hear-not Epithet Gen street go people

‘people who pass on the street, not hearing the songs of birds’

Ama no sita ‘land’ and *tamapoko-no miti* ‘road’ are analyzable as compound nouns, and thus probably not true counterexamples. The word *tamapoko* belongs to the category of so-called *makura kotoba* ‘pillow words’ or epithets, which are fixed designators of the referent that follows them. They are conventionalized, and often unintelligible. There are two genuine counterexamples, listed below.

- (61) a. [Akikaze no samuki asaake wo **Sanu no oka** Ø kwoyu-ramu] kimi ni

fall wind Gen cold early morning Obj Sanu Gen hill cross-AUX lord to

kinu kasa masi wo

(MY 3/361)

dress lend-Aux-Excl

‘In the early morning when the autumn wind is cold, I wish to lend my dress to the lord who is going over the hill of Sano.’

- b. [Warafa ga mi ni pa yupipata no swode take goromo Ø ki-si]

young Gen me at Top color-printed Gen sleeve with clothes wear-P.Adn

ware wo

(MY 16/3791)

I-EXCL

‘At a young age, I was like a child wearing clothes with sleeves printed in colors.’

Appendix 2: *Wo* in Imperative and Conclusive Clauses

803 instances of *wo*-marked objects in the *Man'yôshû* are listed in Koji (1988). (These do not include *wo-mi* constructions, *wo* used for *makurakotoba* epithets, and occurrences with other particles such as *wo-ba*.)³⁶ Most of the 803 tokens appear in nominalized clauses, as expected; that is, the predicates in the irrealis (*mizenkei*) conditionals, continuative (*renyôkei*), adnominal (*rentaikei*), realis (*izenkei*), and *-aku* nominal clauses. There are, however, some exceptions: 6 instances of *wo*-marked objects appear with the predicate in the imperative form (62), and 34 with the conclusive predicate in main and purposive clauses marked by *to* (63-64).

Imperative: (6 tokens)

(62) Aki no yupupyē wa ware wo sinopas-e. (MY 20/4444)

autumn Gen evening Top me Obj remember-Imp

‘(On) autumn evenings, remember me.’

Main clause conclusive: (23 tokens)

(63) a. Putari site musubisi pimo wo pitori site are pa toki mi-zi. (MY 12/2919)

together tied cord Obj alone I Top untie try-Neg.Conj.Conc

‘The sash cords that we tied together, I will surely not untie alone.’

b. Ware-wo wasuras-u na. (MY 14/3457)

me-Obj forget-Conc Neg.Imp

‘Don’t forget me.’

Conclusive in *to*-marked clauses: (11 tokens)

(64) tama wo pirop-u to (MY 7/1220)

jewel Obj find-Conc Comp

‘in order to find the jewel’

There are additional 119 instances of *wo*-marked objects that precede *to*-marked clauses, but they may be taken as arguments of ellipsed higher verbs such as *omopu* ‘think’ or *ipu* ‘say’.. In these examples, *wo*-marked objects are arguments of non-conclusive, non-imperative clauses, as illustrated in (65).

(65) Kimi wo_i [pro_i sakiku are to] (omopite) ipapibe sue-t-u. (MY 17/3927)

lord Obj safe be Comp (thinking) offering vessel place-Perf-Conc

‘(Thinking) of my lord, ‘May he be safe,’ I placed the offering vessel.’

As discussed in section 5.2, we assume that OJ has no ECM constructions; the *wo*-marked subject of the inactive verb is in fact the argument of the higher verb *omopu* ‘think’, which has been deleted in (3927), but standardly interpreted as underlyingly present in this and similar examples. There are also in Koji (1988) at least 3 examples of *wo*-marked objects that precede *to*-marked clauses; these however should be taken as dislocated topics (MY 2/148, MY 10/2228, MY 20/4300). They are not arguments of embedded *to*-marked clauses, but serve as *jokotoba* ‘introductory stanzas’, as discussed above. There are also 4 occurrences of *wo*-marked objects embedded in *-rasi* clauses, as in (66) (MY 13, 3145, 4111, 4427).

(66) Wagimoko si a wo sinop-u ras-i. (MY 12/3145)
my.girl Emph me Obj think-Conc seem-Conc

‘My girl seems to be thinking of me.’

These data show that *wo* marking had spread beyond nominalized clauses in the OJ period, but its distribution appears quite restricted. Most instances of *wo* marking with Conclusive predicates involve 'that' clauses such as (64-65), and many of the conclusive main clause examples such as (64a) involve topicalized objects. This suggests a scenario for the spread of *wo* marking to conclusive clauses. Topicalized *wo*-marked objects with propositional attitude verbs selecting a *to*-clause complement may have been reanalyzed as extracted directly from the *to*-clause, especially in contexts like (65) where the higher verb is dropped.

Support for this scenario comes from the rarity of *wo*-marking in imperatives. Koji (1988) cites only 6 examples. 4 of these (MY 4009, 4444, 4177, and 4179) are from songs in volumes 17-19 of the *Man'yōshū*, composed by Ootomo no Yakamochi or his associates in the period around 750. Of the remaining two examples, MY 3764 was composed around the same period by Nakatomo no Yakamori, while *wo* in MY 2352 is analyzable as a vocative particle. This suggests that *wo*-marking in imperatives was a relatively late innovation. It may have arisen by analogy with *wo* marking in infinitive clauses, triggered by a phonological merger. Four of the 5 clear examples cited above involve imperative predicates with root final *-s*; imperative *-ye* and lower bigrade infinitive *-e* had merged after */s/* well before the 8th century.

Notes

¹ This paper follows in general the transcription and glossing conventions for Old Japanese in Frellesvig and Whitman (2008); however we gloss inflectional endings only when crucial for the argument. Our data is taken from the *Man'yōshū* (compiled mid-8th century), based

primarily on Yoshimura’s electronic text as well as the editions by Nakanishi (1978-1983), Kojima et al. (1995) and Satake et al. (2002). Examples are cited only when the morpheme crucial for the argument is attested in phonogrammatic form (transcribed in italics); material attested logogrammatically is transcribed in simple text.

²The term “nominal” for nominalized clauses in *-aku* follows Wrona (2008). Wrona shows that *-aku* nominal clauses fulfill many of the subordinate clause roles taken on by adnominal clauses in EMJ texts. For the standard view that the nominal ending is historically derived from the adnominal, see section 6.

³ Vovin (2005: 111-116) revises this analysis, suggesting that OJ *-i* may be a loan from Korean. We return to this point in our discussion of EMJ in 6.3.

⁴ Antipassives are common in strictly ergative languages: transitive subjects are marked by absolutive case and objects by oblique case. It is widely claimed that the historical shift from ergative to accusative languages results from reanalysis of antipassives as accusative transitives (e.g. Bittner and Hale 1996).

⁵ Miyagawa (1989, footnote 7) recognizes four counterexamples to the generalization that direct objects in adnominal clauses are uniformly marked with *wo* in OJ. Miyagawa suggests that the examples are noun-verb compounds. In fact, the number of bare N⁰ + verb examples in the *Man’yôshû* is much larger, and the quantity and lexical variety of these examples indicate a productive process of noun incorporation rather than lexicalized compounds.

⁶ Many different terms have been used to describe active alignment. Van Valin (1990) introduces the term split intransitivity; others include variations on Sapir’s (1917) original active-stative, agent-patient (cf. Klimov 1977, Mithun 1991), fluid-S/split S (Dixon 1979, 1994). Klimov (1977) correlates a wide variety of lexical and syntactic traits with active alignment.

⁷ Mithun (1991) identifies the semantic basis of the active marking of various West Hemisphere languages, both synchronically and diachronically.

⁸ There are a few examples in which specific but nonhuman nouns such as *pi* ‘the sun’ or animals of special significance such as *tadu* ‘crane’ and *siwa* ‘snipe’ are marked with *ga*. These are almost certainly examples of personification, a prominent rhetorical device in the *Man’yôshû*.

⁹ Stative verbs such as *wori* ‘be at, sit’ and unaccusative verbs such as *ku* ‘come’ appear with *ga* when the subject is a first or second person pronominal, which are ranked highest on the nominal hierarchy.

(i) a. 米豆良之伎 吉美我 伎麻佐婆

medurasiki kimi ga ki-mas-aba (MY 18/4050)

charming lord Act come-Hon-if

‘if my charming lord comes’

b. 和我乎礼婆 宇良之保 美知 久

wa ga wor-eba ura sipo miti ku (MY 15/3707)

I Act be-when bay tide be.full comes

‘When I am there the tide will be high in the bay.’

¹⁰ Note that (19a) is an example from Eastern Old Japanese.

¹¹ Approximately 120 occurrences of subject *(w)a-ga* are found in the *Man’yôshû* (based on the Yoshimura’s electronic text); all are immediately adjacent to the verb. (Data cited here include personal pronouns written with phonographs but not the freestanding ideograph 吾, which can be read with or without a case particle.)

¹² Sasaki (1996) cites 7 examples from the *Man’yôshû* in which he claims that *ga* appears with a predicate in the conclusive form. (We exclude examples involving the character 之, since this character can be read either as the case marker *ga/no* or the focus adverbial *si*.) (21b) above is one of the examples cited by Sasaki; closer inspection of his data reveals that in 6 out of Sasaki’s 7 examples, as in (21b), the subject is not in the conclusive *to*-clause, but in the higher clause whose predicate is in the adnominal form. The structure of these six clauses, like (21b), is [Subject-*ga*_i [*pro*_i ... *V*_{conc}] *V*_{adn}], where the embedded subject is a phonologically null *pro* coindexed with the *ga*-marked subject in the higher adnominal clause.

¹³ This contrasts with approaches that posit a category-fixing head *n* that selects an acategorial root (Marantz 1997) or *vP* (Alexiadou 2001). Such an approach is not impossible in OJ, but the category-fixing head would have to select T.

¹⁴ However in Turkish the locus of nominalization is higher than OJ: Kornfilt (2003) places it in the Agr or Finite head where subject agreement is spelled out above the Tense-Aspect-Modal projections. OJ, like modern J, has no overt agreement morphology in this position, nor is there any overt Finite or C morpheme above the TAM auxiliaries. Instead what we find are adnominal, etc. allomorphs of these auxiliaries. For this reason we interpret the adnominal and other nominalized forms as the spellout of [nominal] T.

¹⁵ The parentheses on the totals for conclusive and imperative examples of *i-* indicate that all three of these examples are subject to alternative analyses, as discussed below.

¹⁶ Wrona (2006 ms.) cites the second clause of (27) *miti no kuma i-tumor-u* as a counterexample to the generalization that *i-* appears only on active verbs, interpreting this

clause as ‘bends of the road pile up’. This interpretation is also followed by Kojima et al (1995) and Satake et al (2002). But Nakanishi (1978/2004) interprets personificational ‘Mt. Miwa’ as the subject of both clauses. Because this preserves the evident parallelism of the two clauses, we have followed Nakanishi’s interpretation here.

¹⁷ To be precise, 40 of the 44 infinitive examples have human agentive *pro* subjects. Two have personificational subjects, *shirakum(w)o mo* ‘white clouds too’ (MY 317) and *amakum(w)o mo* ‘sky-clouds too’ (MY 319), both occurring with unergative *i-YUKI* ‘i+going’. Both NPs are marked with the subdued focus marker *mo* ‘too/even’ suggesting that they are external to the infinitive clause. Only two examples have possible clause-internal non-agentive subjects, but both of these (MY 2145 and 3409) are problematic of interpretation. MY 2145 is particularly instructive. Kojima et al (1995.3: 111) note that the infinitive clause in question *sa-wosika no kowe i-tuki i-tuki* ‘the voice of the buck i-continuing, i-continuing’ must be interpreted in context as an elliptical realis (*izenkei*) conditional: ‘when *pro* hears the voice of the buck’.

¹⁸ Satake et al (2002.3: 205) also acknowledge this interpretation.

¹⁹ 3 of the 5 counterexamples involve *ne-* ‘sleep’ with human subjects: conclusive (MY 2782) and two with imperative (MY 636,2629). Since *sa-ne* ‘sa+sleeping’ also occurs as a noun, these examples may be backformations. The remaining two counterexamples, conclusive MY 859 and 4156, both involve the collocation *ayu sa-basiru* ‘the sweetfish sa-runs’.

²⁰ Sateré-Mawé (Tupian) has an active system marked by two series of personal prefixes on the verb (cf. Mithun 1991). Meira (2006) shows that in Mawé nonactive verbs are strikingly similar to (possessed) nouns: the same set of personal prefixes appears on nouns and nonactive verbs; these prefixes do not select active verbs.

²¹ On both nouns and verbs *sa-* (but not *i-*) triggers *rendaku* (realized in OJ as prenasalization) on the following voiceless obstruent. This suggests an etymological source of the shape *saN(V). *Sa may be related to the mesial pronouns *sa* ‘thus’, *so* ‘that’ and *si* ‘s/he it’, while *N(V) appears related to genitive/inactive *no*.

²² Commenting on (30b), Kojima et al (1995, vol. 3: 191) observe exactly the distinction we describe here between *i-watar-* and *sa-watar-*. They note that while *i-watar-* occurs only with human subjects, *sa-watar-* is restricted to nonhuman subjects. They fail to extend this distinction to other verbs, however.

²³ An apparent counterexample to this generalization is found in MY 804, where *ga* and prefixal *sa-* appear to surface in the same clause:

(i) 遠等咩良何 佐那周伊多斗 乎意斯比良伎

wotomye-ra ga sa-nasu itado wo osipirak-i
 maiden-Pl Act sa-sleep door Obj push open-Inf

‘pushing open the door where the maidens sleep.’

Kojima et al (1972), however, interpret *wotomyera ga* ‘maidens GA’ as the genitive possessor of *itado* ‘(wooden) door’, a metonymic expression for ‘bedroom’; the entire NP then has the interpretation ‘pushing open the maiden’s (bedroom) door where they sleep’ and the structure in (ii):

(ii) [_{NP} *wotomyera ga* [[*pro sa-nasu*] *itado*]] *wo osipirak-i*
 maidens Gen sa-sleep door Obj push open-Cont

On this interpretation *wotmyera ga* is not the clausemate subject of *sa-nasu* ‘sa-sleep’.

²⁴ Miyamoto et al. (1999) report that Japanese children show a case marking pattern for subject NPs highly reminiscent of what we have described for OJ. They observe that children commonly omit nominative *ga* for subjects of unaccusative verbs, while consistently using *ga* for subjects of transitives and unergatives. They propose that the A-chain Deficit Hypothesis (ACDH) (Borer and Wexler 1987, 1992) accounts for why children treat unaccusatives differently from transitives and unergatives. From a learnability perspective, it may be worth pursuing a unified account for this parallel between the acquisition and syntactic change.

²⁵ We leave the precise landing site of *no*-marked unaccusative subjects in OJ for future research.

²⁶ It should also be noted that on the clitic analysis of pronoun + *ga* (4.1, Yanagida 2007b), the bare object *wa ga na* ‘my name’ in (36) is not, strictly speaking, phrasal.

²⁷ See Hoji (1991) for a similar analysis of so-called Raising to Object constructions in modern Japanese.

²⁸ Kinsui (2001) also observes this generalization.

²⁹ The example is:

(i) 夜麻能奈等 伊賓都夏等可母 佐用比賣何
Yama no na ipi tug-ye to kamo Saywopimye ga
 Mountain Gen name Comp say tell-IMP Comp Q Sayohime Act
 許能野麻能閑仁 必例遠 布利家牟
kono yama no pe ni pire wo puri-kyem-u (MY 5/872)
 this mountain top on scarf Obj wave-PPresum-Adn
 ‘Might Sayohime have waved her scarf on the top of this mountain, (saying) “Pass it on! This mountain’s name!”

However this example is open to at least one other interpretation, where *Sapywopime ga* is taken as the possessive modifier of ‘this mountain’, i.e. ‘On this, Sayohime’s mountain, might she have waved her scarf (saying) . . .’ A reviewer of Yanagida (2006) also cites MY 18/4036 as a counterexample, but this is based on a misinterpretation of this example.

³⁰ It is widely held that inflected adjectives are a relatively late innovation in pre-OJ (Omodaka et al 1967: 41). It is easy to find OJ examples of uninflected adjectives directly modifying the noun, e.g. *kanasi imwo* ‘dear beloved girl.’

³¹ Ohno’s analysis is generally accepted, but its weak point is that there is no attested noun of the form **aku*. An alternative preserving the core of Ohno’s insight would derive *aku* from the existential verb root *a-* ‘exist’ plus the adjectival continuative *-ku*. It has long been pointed out that derivatives of *a-* partake in “stative”-type inflections, e.g. conclusive *-i* in *ar-i* ‘exists.’ Nominals in *-(a)ku* would then derive from V-ADNOM + exist-CONT, ‘being V.’

³² See Manning (1996) for the global hypothesis that certain types of ergativity, in the broad sense, have their diachronic origins in nominalizations. We are grateful to Dan Kaufman for pointing us in the direction of this and other research in the ‘nominalist’ tradition of studies on ergativity, including his own.

³³ We provide only the segmented morphophonemic representation of Gildea’s Panare data in (50), for clarity of presentation.

³⁴ Some linguists, such as Tokieda (1954), relate *wo* to the OJ sentence-final particle *wo*, which is claimed to be emphatic; Tokieda thus claims that the original function of object marking *wo* was emphatic. Whatever is meant by emphatic in this context, it cannot mean, for example, focus, since *wo* marked objects in OJ are typically definite and presupposed.

³⁵ There is one counterexample in the *Konkômyô Saishô Ôkyô* where a nonpronominal subject takes *ga* and the object takes *wo*, in (i).

- (i) 我 弟 捨身 (K 10-26:192)
 waga wotofito **ga** mi **wo** tutete...
 my Gen brother Agt oneself Acc sacrifice
 ‘My brother sacrificed himself.’

The eventual reanalysis of *ga* as a nominative particle in Tokyo and Kansai Japanese is a topic that far exceeds the scope of this paper. Yamada (2000) examines the increase in the frequency of *ga* by comparing the original text of the *Tale of Heike*, which is believed to reflect the language of the fourteenth century, with the Jesuit romanized text of *Heike*, known as the *Amakusa Heike*, published in 1592. He observes that many of unmarked subjects in the *Tale of Heike* came to be marked by *ga* in *Amakusa Heike*. This may indicate that *ga*

reappeared as a nominative case in the late 16th century. The matter is confounded by the association of *ga* and *no* with pejorative and honorific functions, as reported by Jesuit grammarians in the early 17th century. Interestingly, according to Yamada's observation, *ga* in this period is used on the subjects of unaccusative verbs and adjectives, but rarely on the subjects of a transitive/unergative verb. This contrasts directly with the distribution of *ga* in the *Man'yôshû*.

³⁶ According to Koji (1988), there are a total of 1557 instances of object marking *wo* in the *Manyôshû*.

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